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the state boards of education and thus placed more generally in the hands of teachers. The gradual accumulation of good material in the course of a decade would furnish a highly prized source of home knowledge. Text-books would be refreshed by the incorporation of the new information. Teachers would be greatly aided by employing it as a basis for their descriptions and illustrations. It would compete with teachers' meetings for a chief place in the improvement of geographical teaching. I wish that superintendents and teachers all over the country would join me in the movement to secure this result.

Perhaps the impression that I may make by frequent repetition of the recommendation that the teacher must study unceasingly is that the teacher's life ought to be even more wearisome than it is at present. It must certainly be laborious if it is to be successful ; but the consciousness of an easy geographical mind is a good return for all the labor that it has cost to gain it ; and surely the easy mind is a delightful substitute for the anxiety and drudgery of teaching a half-known subject. Indeed, I believe there is nothing that will so surely soften the hard lines of a teacher's life as the freedom from thralldom to the text-book, and the recreation afforded by a change of device and illustration from time to time.

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TEN YEARS OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

In the late reports of the Commissioner of Education at Washington, a great deal of attention has been given to the progress of the nation during the last ten years, both in elementary and higher education. These reports are bulky and 'copious,' as Government documents are wont to be, and to extract the essential data and to discuss them liberally is to perform a service for those whose interest is great but whose time is limited ; for such retrospective views of educational statistics are far better adapted to give an intelligent appreciation of the present condition of affairs than the usual annual statement.

During the year 1889-90, one hundred and forty millions were

expended by the people of the several States for educational purposes. In 1880 the amount was sixty-two millions less, and in 1870 seventy-seven millions less ; or, to say the same thing in other words, the amount expended for common schools during 1890 would have permitted \$2.24 to be given to each man, woman, and child in the country as shown by the Census of 1890, the amount expended in 1880 would have given \$1.56 to each inhabitant as shown by the census of 1880, and the amount expended in 1870 would have given \$1.64 to each person as recorded by the census of 1870. In brief, the expenditure as a sum of money has been doubled, and as a fact in relation to population has increased over one-third above the high prices that ruled at the close of the War. Of the vast sum raised in 1890 nearly one hundred millions came from local taxation, and twenty-six millions of the remainder were raised by State taxation.

The several sections of the country have not been equally lavish in granting money, however ; for about eighty per cent. of the amount raised by taxation from 1870 to 1890 was spent in the States of the North Atlantic and of the North Mississippi Valley, whose expenditures have increased at a marvellous rate during the last ten years, notwithstanding the magnitude of the appropriations at their beginning. To illustrate this it will suffice to give the figures for 1890.

	<i>From State Taxes.</i>	<i>From Local Taxes.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
North Atlantic	\$7,430,470	\$37,965,654	\$45,396,124
South Atlantic	3,535,868	4,050,870	7,586,738
Southern Central . . .	5,831,972	2,959,016	8,790,988
Northern Central . . .	6,828,967	45,833,453	52,662,420
Western	2,562,377	6,328,219	8,890,596

It is at once observable to anyone who examines the foregoing table how large a portion of the sum total is due to the appropriations of the Northern and Western States. And it is also interesting to note that in the Southern and Southwestern States,—so tenacious of local administration,—the amount raised by local taxation is about equal to or is a half of the amount imposed by the State Legislature, while in the Northern and Western States from five to seven times as much is raised by local as by State levy. A possible explanation of this is that the local communi-

ties of the Southern States are not yet so fully aroused to the necessity of taxing themselves as are the general assemblies of their representatives. Other causes may intervene, however, such particularly as a sparsely settled country and the necessity of supporting a double system of public schools ; still it may not be going too far to say that in the Southern portion of the Union elementary education is fostered by the sovereign power, while in the other sections of the country it is rather a matter of local care, which is thought to be the condition of its healthy and permanent existence.

But it is not by taxation alone that the schools are supported. The generosity of Congress and the magnitude of the public domain have provided another source ; for since the creation of the Northwest Territory in 1787, every sixteenth section in each township of public land is reserved for the purpose of forming a public school fund. It is natural, therefore, to inquire what results have followed from this much lauded provision, and for an answer we must go to the West, both north and south. It appears from the statistics that the total income from public school funds (permanent) held by the Western States is \$6,300,000 annually, or in other words, thirteen cents per capita of population in the Southwest, and nineteen cents in the other parts of the western country. It is fair to say, however, that this meagre result is not entirely due to bad management ; for, on the contrary, good management is holding many millions of acres until a fair price can be obtained.

The decade 1880-90 shows an increase in enrollment in public schools twice as great as that of 1870-80, as may be quickly seen from the following figures :

	1870.	1880.	1890.
North Atlantic	2,717,233	2,930,345	3,112,622
South Atlantic	366,322	1,242,811	1,746,751
Southern Central . . .	482,185	1,371,975	2,306,929
Northern Central . . .	3,168,946	4,033,828	5,015,217
Western	136,836	288,546	515,677
United States . . .	6,871,522	8,767,505	12,697,196

To bring out the most important fact contained in these figures it is necessary to state the foregoing matter in another way. The enrollment in the public schools has increased, it is true, but so

has the population ; and the question is, which has increased the faster? To show this the following table is made, the figures under each date indicating how many persons out of every hundred of the people of all ages in the country were enrolled in the public schools at that date :

	1870.	1880.	1890.
North Atlantic	22.09	20.20	17.89
South Atlantic	6.26	16.36	19.72
Southern Central	7.49	15.38	21.02
Northern Central	24.41	23.23	22.43
Western	13.82	16.32	17.03
United States	17.82	19.67	20.27

It appears that about one-fifth of the population of the United States is enrolled in the public schools. This certainly is a very large showing in view of the many private schools in the country ; for the census of 1880 tells us that not more than twenty-five per cent. of the total population was between the ages of five and fifteen. But the most important fact shown by the figures is the diminished percentage of those enrolled in the schools of the North and the increase in the enrollment in the schools of the South. This pronounced tendency may be attributed to the decrease in the number of children of a school going age in the North, or it may be ascribed to a defective system of registration in those sections that since 1880 has been steadily growing more accurate ; but if these explanations will serve to account for the decrease in the North will they also serve to account for the increase in the South? While sterility or disease is decreasing the children in the North, is fecundity or freedom from disease increasing the school going population of the South? Is registration in the South becoming steadily more defective?

But other causes of a more positive character may be adduced to explain the decrease in the number of children enrolled in the public schools of the Eastern and Middle States.

In the first place, the children of two-thirds of the population of the republic* dwell in the open country or in villages having

* Assuming of course that the average length of life and the proportion of celibates are the same in country and city. It is known that one-third of the entire population of the Union is in cities.

comparatively few inhabitants. If it could be shown that children in the New England and the Middle States (the North Atlantic division) do not attend school as long as formerly, that would be one explanation of the diminished enrollment in those sections of the country. Such facts, unfortunately, are a matter of personal observation, not of systematic record, and those who have the opportunity to observe are not always careful to seize it, at least to record what they have observed. It was said by the State superintendent of Maine in 1879 that it was the custom in former years for young people to attend school during the winter until the age of twenty-one; whereas he found in 1878 that they were rarely in them after sixteen or seventeen; and in comparing 1850-4 with 1874-8, he found that there was a decrease of 15,500 in attendance during the *winter*. But, it may be pertinently asked, why did the pupils of New England attend the schools during the winter until their age excluded them? The answer is easy; in those days New England was an agricultural community, and its rather rigorous winter was a period of comparative rest. But now that she has become a manufacturing center, her fields being deserted and her cities increasing in number and size, she is even compelled to enact stringent laws in order to secure a few weeks of schooling to those between the ages of eight and fourteen. There are no statistics on this side of the Atlantic that tend to confirm this argument, but if we turn to a German city, Leipsic, we find that of the children and young people from

0-5 years of age 13 per cent. were not native to the city.							
5-10	"	"	28	"	"	"	"
10-15	"	"	42	"	"	"	"
15-20	"	"	72	"	"	"	"
20-25	"	"	85	"	"	"	"

And there is no doubt that the same phenomenon is happening in the Middle States as well as in New England and Germany. The only State in the North Atlantic division that has increased in enrollment is Rhode Island, and Rhode Island has never been nor can it be an agricultural state. Are these conditions that decrease enrollment present in the West? In answer it may be said that they are certainly making their appearance in Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, and it is in these States and not in Kansas, Nebraska, and Missouri that great losses in enrollment have occurred. Finally, are these conditions present in the South? It is evident that they are not, at least not to any material degree.

In the second place, as the fifties and sixties saw a marvelous expansion in the systems of public schools in the North and what was then called the West, so the later seventies and the eighties witnessed another phenomenon, and that was the growth of a system of sectarian schools. Take New York for instance. In 1880 twenty-one persons in every thousand of her population were in private schools, while in 1890 the number had increased to thirty-five. Nor are these sectarian schools confined to the East, for in Illinois and in Wisconsin they became a political issue. But they are not present in the South. Her white population is more homogeneous, more American, than that of any other portion of the Union.

If, however, the efficiency of a system of public schools may be measured by the cost of keeping the schools open during the year, it is evident that the advantage is with the Northern sections. Thus, in 1880 the North expended for the support of her schools an amount equal to \$2.00 for each man, woman, and child of the population, while in the South the amount was about 60 cents. In 1890, a still larger difference is shown, for in the North the per capita expenditure has become \$2.76 to \$2.81, and in the South it has not quite reached \$1.00. This large expenditure in the North is due, in the first place, to the fact that the Northern schools were open, on an average, from 150 to 157 days, while those of the South were open from 86 to 93 days,* an increase of 7 days in the North and of but 5 in the South; and in the second place, to the very large expenditure for building and incidentals, as shown by the following :

	<i>Total Expenditures. 1890.</i>	<i>For Buildings, Per cent.</i>	<i>For Salaries, Per cent.</i>	<i>For other Current Exp., Per cent.</i>
North Atlantic . .	\$48,006,369	23	60	17
South Atlantic . .	8,519,873	12	78	10
Southern Central	10,796,864	10	82	8
Northern Central	62,823,563	17	65	18
Western	10,130,815	24	64	12

* These figures are approximations, obtained by adding the days in the two Northern sections, at the date of 1880 and then of 1890, and dividing by two, and so with the two Southern sections. It is not strictly accurate, though tolerated for its convenience and, in this case, because after all it is impossible to do better.

As shown above, the heaviest expenditure for public school purposes is for teachers. Here is noticeable another grand distinction between the geographical divisions of the country. In the Northern divisions from 60 to 65 per cent. of the total expenditure is for teachers, while in the Southern divisions it varies from 78 to 82 per cent. It would be very pleasant to think that this greater proportion paid to teachers in the South indicated better pay ; but it has been shown that the teacher in an agricultural State, and the Southern States are to be classed as such, is very much more poorly recompensed for his or her services than one who teaches in a manufacturing community. New England herself testifies to this. The following table shows the average per diem salary of teachers, counting 365 days to the year :

	1870.		1880.		1890.	
	<i>Men.</i>	<i>Women.</i>	<i>Men.</i>	<i>Women.</i>	<i>Men.</i>	<i>Women.</i>
GROUP I :						
Maine	\$0.44	\$0.17	\$0.38	\$0.21	\$0.53	\$0.26
New Hampshire .	.43	.25	.49	.32	.70	.39
Vermont56	.35	.48	.30	.70	.39
GROUP II :						
Massachusetts . .	1.76	.70	1.64	.74	2.76	1.03
Connecticut . . .	1.46	.72	1.38	.87	1.80	.94
Rhode Island . . .	1.71	.90	1.77	1.08	2.25	1.16

It is a melancholy reflection to think that the demand for cheap labor in the school is steadily reducing in a double sense the virility of the teaching force. In 1870 the teaching corps of the whole country contained 39 men in every hundred teachers ; in 1880, 43 men in every hundred ; and in 1890 only 35 men in every hundred. When we remember how desirable it is to train the male pupils that attend the common schools not only in the studies called elementary but also, to use the cant expression, in character, it would seem that the woman teacher has neither the experience nor the force of character to obtain the best results. The answer to such objections and to the complaints so common as to the inefficiency of the teaching of the public schools is very emphatic, however ; for in the New England and Middle States $\frac{4}{5}$ of the teachers are women, in the West about $\frac{1}{3}$, and in the South about $\frac{1}{2}$.

To train these young ladies for their duties until matrimony

claims them and gives them others, the several States have established 135 normal schools. These originally had the object of thoroughly grounding the pupil in the common English branches. In the course of time they became secondary schools, and towards the middle of the last decade began a career as quasi-professional schools in which the science and art of education more or less largely figures. For the support of these normal schools \$1,300,000 was required in 1890, and \$900,000 for building purposes in addition.

In the domain of higher education, the more interesting points for consideration center about the movement for what in America is called post-graduate studies, but on the continent of Europe is systematized and known as university courses. In Germany the 21 universities which are to furnish the state with an *élite* of thinkers who are to guide and direct public opinion are generically known as Hochschulen. Even in France it has been urged that the 60 faculties and schools which give the *enseignement supérieur* might be advantageously consolidated into nine central universities on the German model. In this country, however, the higher institutions of learning are something over 400 in number. This great excess of institutions in the United States is due to several causes. Among these the most prominent is the proviso of the Constitution which reserves to the States all the powers not specifically conferred upon the Federal Government, including the power of regulating education. In educational matters, therefore, each State is, to all intents and purposes, a nationality to itself; it has its own system of public elementary schools, its rapidly growing system of public high schools is materially reducing the profits of the so-called private secondary schools or academies, and the famous land grant of 1862 and subsequent acts have given it an opportunity to establish a State university. Yet the most prolific source of the multiplication of small colleges with large names has been the good-natured liberality of the legislatures in granting the power to confer degrees.

If then, in view of the distinction made above, we compare the number of students in the United States pursuing post-graduate work in literature, philosophy, economics, or science with the attendance of the German faculties of philosophy and the French faculties of letters and sciences, we arrive at the conclusion that little university work is done in this country, though it is increas-

ing with a fair degree of rapidity. To illustrate this, suppose that it were asked, "What proportion of the whole enrollment in the 21 German universities and in the 60 faculties or schools of higher education in France is in attendance in the philosophical faculties of those countries?" If having obtained answers to this we were to compare them with the proportion that the number of students who are pursuing post-graduate studies in American institutions are of the whole enrollment in every American college, university, or professional school, the result would be as follows :

Attendance in the philosophical faculty of 21 universities of Germany	28 per ct.
Attendance in 16 faculties of letters of France	21 per ct.
" in 16 " science " 	7 per ct.—28 per ct.
" in post-graduate courses in U. S.	7 per ct.

As before remarked, the number of post-graduate students in the United States is increasing at a fairly rapid rate considering the number of Americans studying in Europe ; for in 1870 the graduate departments of our higher institutions had but 200, while in 1890 they had 2000 students. The comparatively new university founded by Johns Hopkins has made remarkable progress in this line of work and its preëminence may be ascribed to the advanced character of its work and especially to its very favorable location. It is the only institution of university grade, in the German sense of the word, south of Mason and Dixon's Line, causing the whole South to be tributary to it, and yet it is so close to that line as to be as much a northern as a southern institution. On the other hand, the patronage of the New England States,—another center of post-graduate study,—is distributed among several universities,—Harvard, Yale, Boston, etc. It is evident, however, that the West sends her sons to the nearer and probably less expensive university on the Cheasapeake.

It is scarcely necessary to say that in Germany and in France no one can enter upon a course of university study, which includes medicine, law, and theology, unless he has graduated from a college that has taught him nearly as much Greek and Latin as is taught the undergraduates in the colleges of the United States. In the United States, on the contrary, quite a different mode of professional education is in vogue. Instead of twenty universities each composed of a faculty or school of

philosophy, theology, medicine, and law as in Germany, we have 321 professional schools very few of which are organically connected with the faculty of arts to which many nominally belong. Indeed among them all there are only a few schools of theology that really are of university grade.

Thus from the German standpoint it is material to inquire as to the number of persons who enter our miscellaneous schools of medicine, law, and theology provided with a liberal education, which in Germany and France is supposed to be essential to the successful pursuance of such studies. Upon this point the information is not exact. Some professional schools do not trouble themselves to record such matters ; others will not definitely say that among their students no college-bred man is to be found.

Take the case of the medical schools. In 1881, of 96 schools reporting students only 45 gave the number of college-bred men among their matriculates. In these 45 schools were enrolled 60 per cent. of the total attendance of all the medical schools, and among those composing this 60 per cent. only 17 in every hundred had received a degree in letters or science, or, to express it less clumsily, were college-bred men. Had the number of college-bred men among the unrepresented 40 per cent. been reported it might have followed that instead of 17 there would have been but 10 or 12 in every hundred. Following the same methods for 1890 (70 per cent. of the attendance being represented) it appears that among every average hundred students there were but 15 college-bred men. Or, taking the medical departments of 11 of our leading universities in different parts of the country, in 1881 the number of college-bred men in attendance is 22 for every hundred students in attendance, and in 1890, 24 in every hundred. Now though the percentage of college-bred men pursuing a course of medicine remained stationary during the decade the total number of students entering upon such courses increased 23 per cent. But let us turn to the case of instruction in law.

During the eighties the attendance at law schools increased 40 per cent. and the number of college-bred men fell from 31 in 1881, to 28 in 1890, in every average hundred of attendance. In 9 of our university law schools the attendance increased 19 per cent. and the number of college-bred men in every hundred of attendance fell from nearly 39 in 1881 to 36 in 1890. If among every

hundred students in attendance upon law schools there are 13 more college-bred men than among every hundred of the students enrolled in the medical schools, it would seem to follow that college-bred men much prefer the study of law to that of medicine. But an average is a treacherous thing to reason with; the college-bred men among the medical students are distributed among 150 hundreds and the college-bred men among the law students among 45 hundreds. The fact of the matter is that all through the decade there were more college graduates pursuing the study of medicine than were pursuing the study of law. It is perfectly true that both in this country and in Europe a perfect mania to study medicine seems to have seized the younger public, but in America the pressure for admission to the medical schools arises from an intelligent perception on the part of high school graduates and other young men, of the celerity with which they can be turned into doctors by a small expenditure of time and money.

Finally let us take the case of the study of theology. During the decade the attendance at the schools offering this specialty increased 53 per cent. while the number of college-bred men fell from 26 in 1881 to 22 in 1890, in every average hundred. But if 21 eastern and 6 western schools be taken a better showing is made. In these 27 schools the attendance increased 52 per cent. and the college-bred men fell from the very high number of 72 in every hundred in 1881 to 57 in 1890.

Are we to assume then that the scholarship of the matriculates at professional schools is inferior to what it was ten years ago? By no means, for the deans and the presidents are almost unanimous in asserting that the scholarship of their matriculates has improved; and there is reason to believe that this improvement has been effected by the growth of the public high school system. It is an interesting question in practical psychology that is raised by these figures, when they suggest the inquiry whether the mental attitude of the young man of 18 is not more favorable to his entering enthusiastically upon a course of study which he thinks will insure him profit, power, or consideration, than at 22 after four years of study for a certificate of mental ripeness, as the Germans call it, which the boy of 18 or 19 is encouraged by his faculty of medicine or law to take for granted.

Only in New York, and there only in a feeble way, has any

attempt been made by the State to abridge the perfect freedom of its citizens to enter upon a course of professional education. Graduates of the college and of the grammar school are equally freely admitted to the halls of the great majority of our professional institutions. It frequently happens, indeed, that when the grammar school graduate has achieved professional distinction he laments that he had not studied the humanities at a college, but from a purely professional standpoint the only difference in the classroom between the more and the less educated man is a difference that an active mind may materially reduce, if the student be not too young, nor burdened with the duties of one profession while attempting to acquire another, and if the course he is pursuing be not too short.

Leaving the subject of higher or strictly university education, we may turn to the consideration of two great changes in the curriculum of the American college, one of which has been inaugurated and the other confirmed during the eighties. Though meagre as yet in results the effort made to shorten the time honored college curriculum of four years has at least gained a foothold. To an American it is a standing matter of surprise and complaint to see how expeditiously the French or German boy is prepared for his "*bachelier ès lettres*" or his "*Reifezeugniss*." On the continent of Europe the young man may obtain his degree and enter upon his university course at the age of 17 or 18, the age at which, in America, he is just beginning a term of study that will require four years to complete. The rapidity with which the French or German boy is moved along may be due to the system of *Lycées* and *Gymnasien* which prevail in those countries; for these institutions take the pupil, who is generally of very intelligent or well to do parents, while quite a child, and retain the direction of his studies until he is prepared to take his degree. But it would seem that our system of public elementary and high schools, if thoroughly organized not as secondary universities, but as mind-maturing institutions, would yield results equal to those secured to Germany by John Sturm and his successors, and to France by the Jesuit Fathers, provided, of course, that the advancement of the more intelligent was not retarded by too infrequent promotions. Be this as it may, one of the most noteworthy events of the decade has been the attempt to shorten the college course for those who propose to enter upon an ex-

tended course of medicine. The movement as yet has hardly passed out of the stage of being considered theoretically desirable, but the determined attitude of the national bodies of physicians and lawyers, which has already effected the enlargement of the curriculum of the schools devoted to instruction in their respective arts, may be expected to operate with equal efficacy in preventing too great a retardment during the preparatory period in the college. As long as the national bodies of professional men regard the presence of a large number of college graduates among the matriculates of a professional school as an evidence of strength to that particular profession, so long will the struggle for a shortened college course be continued ; and to objections that in shortening the course the value of the college degree will be impaired, they point to the conditions existing in France and Germany and ask whether it is England and America that send students to those countries, or whether those countries send the graduates of their colleges to England or America to perfect themselves in literature, science or art ?

Yet as revolutionary and undesirable as this shortening of the college course may seem to American educators, it hardly equalled the surprise of Europeans when, ten or fifteen years ago, they learned that certain American colleges had departments of technology. In disgust Mr. Matthew Arnold remarks that one of our great land grant colleges seems to rest on a misconception of what culture truly is, and to be calculated to produce miners, or engineers, or architects, not sweetness and light like Mr. Arnold's own university of Oxford.* Europe afforded us no precedent for this combination of the useful and the liberal arts. In Germany, beside the literary *Hochschulen* or universities stands a wholly distinct system of technical *Hochschulen* or polytechnicums. In France the *École Polytechnique*, the School of Bridges and Roads, the School of Mines, the Central School of Arts and Manufactures, and the Higher School of Agriculture are not even under the control of the minister of education. But here in America under the influence of the act of 1862 granting lands for the establishment of schools for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts, a system of State universities has been inaugurated in which technology is a coördinate department ; the word university being now used in the English sense of a collection of colleges having the same or different specialties.

* Culture and Anarchy, Preface, p. xxix. Eng. ed.

Since famine in Ireland and political oppression in central Europe drove thousands to a land without personal government, caste, or a State religion, a continued stream of immigration has been poured upon our shores whose progeny, it was boasted, would be ground into conformity with American ideas and institutions by attendance upon the systems of State supported schools. Of all the very large claims made for such systems this is certainly entitled to the highest confidence of the American citizen ; for there is no American who will not assent to the dictum that national education is a national duty, that it is a sacred duty, and that to leave it to chance, church, or charity is a national sin.* One hundred millions are annually raised by taxation in the States of the north Atlantic coast and of the upper Mississippi valley, where respectively one-half and one-third of the urban population of the land is concentrated and the cities contain half the population of foreign birth residing upon American soil. These States have a population just equal to that of France, but for every dollar that France finds it necessary to expend to perpetuate her republican form of government and to extinguish rivals that, perhaps unwittingly, prevent that nationalization, the States of the East and of the old West spend three.

In speaking of the bi- or trifurcation of the public school systems and the conditions under which such systems give the best results it should always be remembered that in only two countries of the world has an opportunity been afforded the common schools to exhibit themselves at their best. In the parish school of Scotland and in the common school of New England, New York, and their progeny the States of the Northwest Territory, rich and poor, bright and dull sat upon the same bench. In England, Eton, Rugby, and the other so-called public schools are for the gentry. In France the Lycées, and in Germany the Gymnasien are for the people of higher social condition. Nor does the difference between the European schools for gentlemen and the schools for the people consist entirely in the character of the attendance ; the tone of the instruction and the ability of the masters are also different.

It is natural, therefore, that in Europe the hopes of the State,—considering it to be a personality composed of the best intellect of the population,—should be centered upon the well-working of

* F. Max Müller. Address on National Education.

the gentlemen's schools, but in America upon the well-being of the common schools. Take the deliverances of Monsieur Renan for instance. It was not the German elementary school teacher that won at Sadowa, exclaims he, but German science; and after a little he goes on to say that the United States in creating a great system of popular education without supplying a balance wheel in the shape of a "serious higher instruction" shall be punished for a long time in a purgatory of intellectual mediocrity, vulgarity of manners, superficiality, and a general lack of intelligence.*

The American common school has very little to learn from the people's school of Europe. Perhaps the paternal gentleness, so near akin to pity, which dominates the methods of the directing powers, at least, when dealing with the children of the peasantry may be tolerable to an American if it can be cleared from the suspicion of being cant. But in secondary education and in higher education we have much to learn and have learned all we know from Europe, and following the decision of the generals at the close of the second day at Gettysburg, all that remains is to "correct the lines and fight it out."

Wellford Addis.

Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

THE HISTORY OF EARLY EDUCATION.

II. THE ANCIENT EGYPTIANS.

By far the most interesting of the ancient races were the Egyptians, whether we regard the antiquity, or the detailed organization, of their complex civilization.†

* Questions contemporaines (troisième édition), p. vii and p. 76.

† Authorities.—Herodotus, Rawlinson, Ebers, Diodorus Siculus; M. Maspero in the Dict. Pæd.; also his Ancient Egypt and Assyria; Schmidt's History of Education, (by way of reference); Le Page Renouf, Wilkinson's Manners and Customs of the Ancient Egyptians, Ranke's History of the World, Mariette's Outlines. Of course I give my own conclusions. As a rule, in the first part, I take Rawlinson, as the basis, and what I say is occasionally quoted and often abridged from him; but I make such modifications in his account as are suggested to me by the study of the other books mentioned.